

is rated can claim all reasonable deductions under the Parochial Assessment Act. —Mr. KENDALL: I understand you that you thought the royalty should be rated as a royalty, and apart from that the occupier should be rated? —Yes. —What disturbed Cornwall was this, that while in other counties the occupier is rated, in Cornwall the lord would be rated as far as he was concerned, and that then there would be another rating upon the occupier, but how that assessment would be made you did not offer an opinion? —No. —Still you adhere to the opinion you then expressed, that the machinery, the land, and the occupier should all three be rated? —The machinery and the occupier will go together. —And the lord will be rated beside? —Yes. The royalty must be rated, if you continue to rate the lord. I wish to be understood all along as speaking upon the supposition that the law will be continued as it has heretofore been, by which the lord is made liable to rates in respect of his royalty, or rather, it should be said, his ore than his royalty. If that practice is to be abandoned, and the more simple course is to be adopted of rating only the occupier of the mine, then, of course, the lord is out of the question, and the miners only will be rated, and they will be rated upon the assessable value, as ascertained by the experience of a careful valuer, upon what it will let for to rent as a mine.

By Mr. READ.—Royalty must be considered as a rent.

Mr. READ: Why should it not be generally considered as the full and fair annual value that a tenant would give for a mine? —I can hardly answer that question, because in settling the royalty of a mine there are a great many matters taken into consideration, distinct from the ordinary calculations by owners of land for a simple rent. It is said in the old law books that the royalty is a "render," and "render" is the old word for rent, so that as far as the law goes it considers that it is a rent, and it has almost all the incidence of rent service. There is, however, a great deal of valuable occupation independently of what is rendered to the lord—that is to say, the adventurers' profits. —But you would not rate a farmer upon his profits! —No; but I must rate him upon the value of the occupation of his land. I suppose a farmer pays more to a landlord in the shape of rent, which is here the subject of assessment, than a miner does in the shape of a royalty to the lord.

The witness was then examined at some length by Mr. LEEMAN as to the analogy between the occupier of a farm and the occupier of a mine.

The room was cleared, and after some deliberation the Chairman was ordered to report the bill as amended to the House, and also as to the other questions of exemptions referred to the committee a special report. The document is as follows:—"The Select Committee to which the Mines, &c., Assessment Bill was referred, and which was instructed that they had power to enquire into the present exemptions from liability to local rates of different hereditaments other than those occupied for State purposes, whether arising out of statutory provisions or the decisions of courts of law, or custom, or usage, and to make provision for the abolition of all or any of such exemptions, if the Committee should deem such a course to be right, by extending the provisions of the bill referred to them, have agreed to the following special report:—

"That the Committee having regard to the probable length of the enquiry, are of opinion that it would be inexpedient to go into the other numerous exemptions from local rates on the present occasion."

The above-mentioned reports were presented by the Chairman to the House the same evening, received, and ordered to be printed.

We may, however, state that the principal amendments consist of clauses proposed by Messrs. Henderson, St. Aubyn, and Leeman. The first is a very stringent one, as to allowance for depreciation of "corpus;" the second exempting occupiers of mines within the jurisdiction of the Stannary Courts of Devon and Cornwall and the Derbyshire Courts from being assessed to local rates; and the third basing the rating of all mines solely upon the royalty.

THE SELECT COMMITTEE ON MINES.

TUESDAY.—Present, Mr. Neate (in the chair), Sir Philip de Grey Egerton, Mr. Powell, Mr. W. Orme Foster, Mr. Bruce, Gen. Dunne, and Mr. Greenall. The only witness to-day was Sir GEORGE GREY, late Secretary of State for the Home Department.

The CHAIRMAN: What is your idea of the duty of an Inspector of Mines? —WITNESS: I think the duties are specified in the instructions which they receive when they are appointed, and in those which are addressed to them from time to time by the Secretary of State. It never was contemplated that they should take any share of responsibility in the management of mines, or that mines should be worked under the superintendence of Inspectors appointed by Government. They ought to have a knowledge of different modes of working, and of the principles which govern the ventilation of mines, so as to be able with promptitude and efficiency to attend to any case in which it is alleged or believed a pit is worked in a way likely to cause danger to life. They should then point out to the manager of the pit the grounds for apprehending danger, and if their advice be not attended to, bring the case at once to the notice of the Secretary of State, and then (and it frequently has been the case) the Secretary of State communicates directly with the managers, pointing out the grave responsibility they incur by persisting to work the pit under such circumstances. There are many other points of duty, which are indicated in the instructions, but which are as numerous as they are onerous. One of their duties is to attend inquests.

The CHAIRMAN: Do you consider it part of the duty of an Inspector that he shall make himself, within a reasonable time, personally acquainted with the state of every colliery in his district? —As far as possible, no doubt it is; but collieries of a certain class require more frequent inspection and visitation than others, and I do not know that it is necessary for him to ascertain the state of those collieries which there is no reason to believe are dangerous. No doubt it is desirable that he should inform himself of the state of the mines he has to inspect, and I see that Mr. Dickinson, in his evidence, says—"There is no colliery in my district of which I do not know on what principle it is conducted."

The CHAIRMAN: The duties of the Inspectors are regulated by the Act of 1855? —Their powers, rather, I think.

The CHAIRMAN: In the 17 and 18 Vic., cap. 108, clause 7, the marginal note says—"Powers and duties of Inspectors"—and having read the clause, asked the witness if he concurred in the instructions given from time to time by the Home Office carried out the apparent intentions of the Legislature in that clause? —WITNESS: I think so. It gives them power to visit at any hour, day and night, but it does not imply that they are to do so unless they think fit—something must be left to their judgment. The smallness of the number of Inspectors originally appointed shows that the idea of the Legislature was not that the Inspector should visit every colliery in his district. The number has since been doubled, but that was rather the result of an increase in the number of mines and collieries than of any new view of the duties of Inspectors. I think the clause was intended to give the Inspectors power as against the managers to enter the workings at any time.

The CHAIRMAN: Taking into consideration the great increase which has taken place in the number of collieries, do you think the present number of Inspectors sufficient to enable them to perform their duties? —That is a practical question, on which I can hardly give an opinion. I think the Inspectors themselves are best qualified to give an opinion on that point. I see that Mr. Mathews, in his evidence, says that as more pits are open it is possible that some moderate increase in the number of Inspectors, and re-arrangement of their districts, would be advisable, without putting upon them more responsibility as to controlling modes of working, which it is quite impossible for Inspectors to undertake. I do not think a large increase would be desirable. I see that of the Inspectors themselves a majority seem to think an increase unnecessary; and I know of no personal interest which they can have in objecting to an increase. Since the last increase no question of a further increase has come before me, but I see some of the working colliers entertain the idea that a great increase would be beneficial.

The CHAIRMAN: Do you not think they would prefer an increase of salary to an increase of their number? —I am not aware that they are dissatisfied with their salaries, which begin at 600*l.*, and are raised, after a time, to 700*l.*, and then, again, after a further period, to 800*l.* They have their travelling expenses besides, and are also entitled to a liberal superannuation. I believe that is quite sufficient to secure the services of the most competent men that could be obtained.

The CHAIRMAN: Suppose that after a certain number of years' service the elder ones should form a board of superintendence over the others, on the model of the local government office? —I do not see the advantage of that; it would withdraw them from the really more important duty of inspection.

The CHAIRMAN: The Inspector now has to attend when accidents occur; but supposing it was the practice for him to make more frequent inspection, would not some blame be cast upon him if the mine were in a bad state, and he had not brought it under the notice of the Secretary of State; would not that give him rather a bias in his mode of conducting the enquiry? —He does not conduct the enquiry, but it is his duty to see that a careful enquiry is made; and sometimes, in special cases, a competent person has been associated with him for that purpose. He is instructed, quite independent of the inquest, to make a careful inspection as to the cause of the accident. The associate, however, is not sent down in district of the Inspector, but to assist him.

The CHAIRMAN: Suppose we had two older retired Inspectors, constituting a board of superintendence, should you not think them more fit to attend to any such enquiry than the actual mining Inspector of the district? —No; I should think the latter more competent than men advanced in years, and no longer in the habit of attending to the practical details of mining.

The CHAIRMAN: What age do you consider too great for a candidate to be qualified for the Inspectorship? —I am not prepared to say. An Inspector should be a man with a sufficient practical knowledge of the working of the mine, besides that amount of scientific and literary knowledge which is now required and tested by an examination in all Civil Service appointments. He should be a man of great personal activity—of unusual powers, both of body and mind. Allow me, however, to correct a misconception. I see that in Mr. Mathews's evidence he says the Home Office reject men above 40 years of age; but that is a mistake, 40 is not mentioned. It is 45, and after that age, in cases where men are specially qualified, they would be appointed. I do not mean to say that 45 is a proper maximum, but I should be sorry to see men between 30 and 60 appointed, although even then there may be special exceptions.

The CHAIRMAN: From 25 to 45 is the rule. Do you think 25 a proper minimum? —Mr. Mathews thinks it too young. —I think in practice it will be found that very young men are not appointed. The age at which men are entrusted with the management of large collieries would be a good guide as to the minimum age at which Inspectors should be appointed. There is a great difference in men, some at 25 are quite competent.

The CHAIRMAN: In what way would more frequent inspection diminish the responsibility of managers? —It is a question of degree; if Inspectors are constantly visiting a mine, and interfering with the working, recommending the adoption of this and the relinquishment of that, it is obvious that the responsibility in case of accident would be thrown upon them. The owners would say: "The Inspector did not see any danger at that particular spot, and we did not." In such a case he would not be an Inspector in the proper sense of the term, but a superintendent of mines.

The CHAIRMAN: Do you think the Inspector ought to visit his mines within a given period, (say) once in three months? —It would be a waste of time to apply such rule to all pits. There have been repeated instances in which the Inspector has been instructed by the Home Office to pay frequent visits to particular pits where there is a likelihood of danger, and where it has not appeared that the managers have taken proper precautions, or when it has been desirable to ascertain whether, having been warned, they have taken remedial steps. Letters addressed to the Inspectors by the pitmen, even though anonymous, are always attended to, and wherever a *prima facie* case of neglect is made out it is the duty of the Inspector to enquire into all the circumstances under which such pit is worked.

The CHAIRMAN: Then you think the number ought to be increased? —A moderate increase might be necessary, but I am not prepared to say that it is. The majority of Inspectors think the present number sufficient.

The CHAIRMAN: Do you think a frequent report, stating the number of pits visited, and the number not visited, should be made? —I do not see the use of the latter, and they do report the number of visits now. I see Mr. Brough says that the Secretary of State allowed the weekly return to be discontinued. It was suggested by Mr. Clive (a member of this Committee) that diary should be sent in weekly, and for a considerable time it was sent in; but in February, 1865, in consequence of the representations of the Inspectors, Mr. Baring directed its discontinuance, and in lieu thereof they send in a quarterly return in a certain form, which secures the information required by the Secretary of State. It is, no doubt, the duty of the Inspector to have all the boys employed in any pit before him, if he has reason to believe there is a violation of the law; but I never heard of any case in which boys under age were systematically employed. There are, no doubt, individual exceptions, and those have frequently been detected by the Inspectors.

The CHAIRMAN: Are you not aware that there is great unwillingness on the part of the men to state the age and attendance at school of their children, and that the clauses on those points are directed against the workmen as men, as the employers? —It would be difficult to enforce a law of that kind against the wish of the workmen, but I have no information on the subject. No doubt the pitmen often take their boys down to help them, in which case they are not paid by the owners. Part of the borough which I represent is the large colliery parish of Pendleton, and there they have excellent schools, and the children of the miners are better educated than those of the purely agricultural districts.

The CHAIRMAN: What is your opinion as to having managers certified, like the certificated masters of ships? —I have not had my attention drawn to that until I read it in the evidence; but I think the reasons against it, given by some of the witnesses, are very strong. The cases are quite different. The master of a ship has the sole control for some months, if on a foreign voyage, and is not subject to any superintendence; the lives of all on board are, so to speak, in his hands, and it is important that he should be a thoroughly qualified person. If a mine manager misconducts himself, he is not left to go on long without it being known and remedied. The coalowners have the greatest interest in having efficient managers, and as far as my knowledge goes of them, as a body, I think they are efficient.

The CHAIRMAN: But does not efficiency in a manager mean the greatest amount of coal got at the least wages? —And with the greatest safety. The owners have the greatest interest in the safety of the men. I am satisfied with the results of coroners' inquests, and believe they are impartially conducted. I do not remember precisely the reasons why the alteration was made in the Act of 1860 in the mode of appointing arbitrators. I am not aware that the working of the present system has been unsatisfactory, although it does not, on the face of it, seem to be the best that might be adopted. I am in favour of stipendiary magistrates wherever there are large and densely populated districts, where disputes are likely to arise between the employers and the employed. It is difficult to get other magistrates free from a suspicion of bias, either by class or personal interests, although such a suspicion may be wholly unfounded. I believe the appointment of Inspectors has led to the most satisfactory results in diminishing the loss of life.

Mr. BRUCE: The Chairman has suggested a board of Inspectors on the model of the Local Government Office; but, as a matter of fact, that office does not exercise any control over local officers? —No; such a board would only do what is now done by the Secretary of State.

By Mr. LIDDELL.—Experience is always showing how slight improvements may be effected, but it is undesirable to be going to Parliament continually for alterations in minute details.

Mr. LIDDELL: Has not the Home Secretary now the power to increase the number of Inspectors? —Not without the sanction of the Treasury. If the Home Secretary thought such an increase necessary he would write to the Treasury, explaining his reasons for that opinion, and asking them to place the increase in the estimates, and then it would be for the House of Commons to decide. Generally in such cases, the letter is printed with the estimates, so that the House may know the reasons on which the proposal is based, and judge whether they are sufficient. I had very little personal communication with the Inspectors—the Parliamentary Under Secretary took that business on himself. When a vacancy occurred, I attended to that myself. I looked through the testimonies, and the candidates were submitted to the usual examinations; but besides that I had an arrangement with Mr. Warington Smyth to examine them as to the peculiar qualifications requisite, and to report to me.

By Mr. POWELL.—There is also an examination as to physical qualities—that is the case as to all candidates for civil service, and some persons think it is too stringent. Any defect of sight could not escape notice.

Mr. POWELL: Supposing such defects in an Inspector arose from age and long service, how would they be brought under the notice of the Secretary of State? —So many persons are interested in the efficiency of the Inspector that it would soon come to his knowledge. The workmen, for instance, have the greatest interest in it, and they are quite ready to avail themselves of opportunities of making complaints.

By the CHAIRMAN.—I do not remember any such complaint being made, or the removal of an Inspector ever taking place.

The witness then withdrew.

The Committee sat for a considerable time with closed doors, and on their rising it was understood that they will take no further evidence, and that they will meet directly after Whitsuntide to consider their report.

THE MINERAL RESOURCES OF HAYTI.

In his exploratory travels in search of mineral wealth the miner almost instinctively regards a mountain as a beacon which shall guide him toward the attainment of his object; and where a district is at once mountainous and fertile, the man of business may generally conclude that there is a fair field for commercial enterprise. The island of Hayti, or Saint Domingo, presents just such an aspect as the most fastidious could desire—it consists partly of mountains and partly of plains, and presents almost every variety of climate and temperature; a refreshing breeze almost continually blowing, giving to the whole body a calm sensation, inviting sleep, and in the high lands strengthening the nerves, and even prolonging life. The development of the commercial resources of Hayti is now to be energetically entered upon, the HAYTIAN ESTATES COFFEE AND GENERAL PLANTATION COMPANY, with a capital of 300,000*l.*, in shares of 5*l.* each, being now in course of formation for the purpose of cutting and exporting the various descriptions of valuable timber, and cultivating coffee and other products upon the rich and important estates formerly belonging to the celebrated Governor of the island, General Toussaint Louverture, and comprising about 185,000 acres of land, together with the buildings and property, as well as the coal, mineral, and other rights belonging to them.

The Gonaive coffee produced on these estates enjoys a well-merited reputation, and commands a high price in the French markets; and the company will not only give its attention to this, but will cultivate and trade in cotton, indigo, cocoa, tobacco, sugar, maize, jute, and other products, and export turpentine, resin, and palm oil, and the profits derivable from these sources can scarcely fail, regardless of any consideration of the coal and other minerals already ascertained to exist, to afford an ample fund for distribution to the shareholders. But the greater proportion of the dividends must, undoubtedly, be expected from the development of the enormous mineral riches of the estates, and it is precisely these which will be particularly attractive to the readers of the *Mining Journal*. The mountains of Saint Domingo consist generally of long chains, the two principal of which stretch the whole length of the island, and have a general direction from east to west. These contain an infinite number of mines of all sorts, whilst the high reputation which the Spanish gold mines gained for the mountains of Cibao is too well known to need comment.

The history of the mines is peculiarly interesting. In 1493 Columbus, having received a very flattering account of the mines of Cibao from Alfonso, brave captain whom he had dispatched thither to report upon them, visited them in the following year to verify the report, and crossing from Isabella, on the chain of Monte-Christ, he discovered the plain which he called La Vega Real, the beauty of which struck him still more when seen from the mountains of Cibao. Only eight years after La Vega had become a city of importance, and sometimes 250,000 crowns were minted there during the year, the whole of the gold for which was obtained from the mines of Cibao, at a time when metallurgy was in no great perfection, and when the loss was consequently excessive. In the Spanish part of the island there are mines of iron, copper, lead, and gold, silver, and precious stones, as well as mercury, have likewise been found. In the fertile mountains of Bahoruco there are excellent indications of the existence of gold mines, and gold sand is seen in the waters. Several gold mines were also formerly worked in Azua, but they are all now absolutely abandoned. Since the tremendous earthquake in 1751, mineral waters have been noticed bubbling up in the mountains of Vizcaya, and the nature of these waters leads to the supposition that the mountain whence they spring is rich in sulphurous matter.

Between the rivers Nigua and Jayna lies an extensive and fertile plain, which was originally a most abundant source of riches to the colonists—the quantity of pure gold obtained from it, its sugar, cocoa, indigo, and other plantations, paid duties to a greater amount than those now paid by all the Spanish part of the island put together. Toward the source of the river Jayna were the celebrated gold mines of St. Christopher, not far from which is the parish of St. Rose, which has in its dependency the formerly rich population of Bonaventure, now reduced to a handful of individuals, whose employment is the breeding of cattle or the washing of gold sand. On the banks of the Jayna, in Gamboa and Guayabal, there is a very rich silver mine, which they had begun to work, but which was

given up in consequence of eighteen negroes having been killed by a fall of earth. There is another mine of the same metal between La Croix and St. Michael. The city of Santo Domingo contains three monasteries, one of which—that of the Cordeliers—is built on a little hill, containing a mine of mercury. What a striking contrast is offered by the comparison of the present population with that of the first few years after the discovery of America—when at the beginning of the sixteenth century the rich mines of the colony, and especially the silver mine found near the capital, induced the sovereign to establish a mint at Santo Domingo, where money of the same standard as in Spain was struck.

The mines of Bonaventure and St. Rose are in the district wherein was found (not to mention many others also of remarkable size) the famous lump of gold so proudly spoken of by Spanish writers, and especially by Oviedo, who states that it weighed 3600 Spanish dollars. There was annually run at Bonaventure as much as 230,000 dollars worth of gold, and when the coat of arms was granted to the town the escutcheon chosen was—"sinope, with a golden sun through a cloud from which a shower of gold is falling." Both Bonaventure and Bonao, however, subsequently fell into decay, and in 1606 both were abandoned. The fact of the poorer inhabitants of this locality being engaged in gold washing has already been referred to, and with respect to the quality of the gold obtained it is stated that it was above 23*l.* carats. In 1750 preparations were made to re-work these deposits with the energy they deserve, but the death of Don Jacob Cienfuegos, who directed the works, caused the enterprise to be given up.

The estates to which these descriptions refer are situated on the northern and western parts of the island, and are well watered, whilst, with regard to the commercial prospects of the enterprise, it will suffice to state that the island is governed by laws founded on the Code Napoleon, the Presidents of the republics and the natives being favourably disposed to facilitate the introduction of capital and the increased means for employment of the agricultural population to be afforded by the company; that there are great facilities for the shipment of cargoes to England, France, and America, the ports of Gonaive and the Barre de Neybe being within convenient distance, both for road transport and water carriage, from the estates, and that the terms upon which the company is to acquire the property are equitable, the vendor taking two-thirds of the purchase-money (140,000*l.*) in shares of the company. The details connected with the several mines will form the subject of another notice upon a future occasion.

THE STEAM-ENGINE—AS IT IS, AND AS IT SHOULD BE.

Last week we had submitted to us a manuscript pamphlet, of about 120 pages 8vo., compiled and composed by Mr. CRADDOCK, which is illustrative of our laws upon real original practical inventors, and shows the effects such laws produce upon the prosperity and security of the country. The author also examines in an impartial and exhaustive manner the derogative statements put forth against his claims as an inventor, and shows by unimpeachable historic evidence that, taking his patented and his unpatented discoveries and improvements in the steam-engine, and referring back to the dates when he published them to the world, and placed them in every-day practical work before the public, instead of any of his statements upon the property value of the invention, or his claims thereto, exceeding the truth, they do not come up to the actual value of the property so made, and his rightful claim as the producer of the invention. To the English people alone he shows this invention is worth nearly 30 than 20 million pounds sterling annually, and in property value and universal application it far exceeds either SAVERY'S, NEWCOMEN'S, WATT'S, or TREVETHICK'S, when compared, as theirs are, with the state of things they found in use when each first put his invention practically before the public. This author shows how easy it is upon subjects of this kind to mislead the public, by specious leaders and reviews written to serve vested interests, and strip the inventor of reward and credit by producing *prima facie* articles, which give impressions the very opposite of those which would result from a fair statement of the case. He points attention to the fact that inventions, like farms, are known by the value of the crops they produce; where no crop is there can be no property value. He also shows that in the steam-engine the mechanical structures are to it what the house, buildings, roads, and water-courses are to the farm; but that it is in the combination of the ever-changing fluid principles that the basis of the property in the steam-engine is found, just as the land is the basis of the farm property. He then gives the true historic account of how each inventor had improved this basis before he entered the field in 1840, and how from that time, by the end of 1845, he had developed, practically applied, and published to the world, the discoveries and improvements which constitute his invention; and here we find the inventor, in self-defence, compelled thus to publish and expose in practice his invention before patenting it, and thus the reason why his patent claims are not co-extensive with his rightful claims in his productions. He then

mankind? That his contemporaries should not recognise the almost boundless worth of his invention does not surprise the inventor; but the indications have been too plain that it has been the recognition of a large amount of worth in it that has prompted the injustice towards the inventor, which has been of the most cruel kind.

In paragraphs from 48 to 60, this author, by an exhaustive examination of the historic evidence, shows what others did and did not do prior to his entering the field in 1840, and he sums up the sequel thus:—“Paragraph 66. This inventor's basis and results embrace the following that is not found in WATT's basis and results:—WATT's basis did not include surface condensation, even with water, and when that was added by HALL and others, from 1834 to 1838, so far as was WATT's basis in its use of heat, that no appreciable economy was effected. It did not combine the high and low pressures in the same engine. It was not a direct-acting engine. It did not recognise the cause of the condensing effect of steam under expansion, and, consequently, it did not neutralise it. Consequently, speaking of it as a marine and factory expansive engine, it had extremely little practical worth. It did not retain the steam-water for the use of the boiler. Its boiler did not generate even the low pressure steam at the rate of $13\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. for 1 lb. of coal, but at the rate of 8 lbs. of steam for 1 lb. of coal. It did not produce the horse power with 1 lb. of coal per horse-power per hour, but required 8 lbs. It did not reduce the condensing water required to 80 gallons per horse-power per hour, but as in HALL's case, with surface condensers, it required 600 gallons for a like power for a like time. It did not form a basis and provide the means by which steam of 400 lbs. pressure can be safely and economically generated, and effectively used in practice, and thus by CRADDOCK's invention reduce the coal to even $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. per horse-power per hour. It did not bring in the atmosphere as the condensing medium, and thereby secure all the advantages universally, which it could only take advantage of in the few localities where water was abundant. It could not produce the horse-power with a fresh supply of 1 gallon of water per horse-power per day, but required for the same hour-day, according to HALL, 6000 gallons per horse-power per day. Its use was very limited, but the field in which this basis is applicable is as wide as that of the existence of man. WATT's engine was also limited in its use by bulk and weight. But the inventor's engine, boiler, condenser, combustible, and water, as before said, may be so reduced in bulk and weight for its power, as perhaps at some future time to be found flying among the birds in the air, and still retaining greater economy than the best Cornish engine ever made, though for equal power it be reduced in weight a hundred-fold, and make one hundred strokes in the time the Cornish takes to make one. Now the reader can contrast WATT's basis with NEWCOMEN'S basis, and then he will know what to think of the *Artizan* of 1844, and of “the cause, the truth and grandeur of which was just being generally acknowledged,” according to the *Engineer* in 1861. It may assist the reader to see why just then that acknowledgment was forthcoming, to say the inventor's patent had just then lapsed: stripped of all pecuniary reward, why should he not be of the credit also?”

In the same way, in paragraph 70, the author sums up the sequel of his sifting of evidence upon the TREVETHICK non-condensing engine. We have seen how far the WATT and the Cornish bases fell short of the basis produced by this invention, by showing what they did not contain which this basis does contain. The same course is here adopted with the TREVETHICK basis. The TREVETHICK basis does not contain condensation. It does not retain the steam-water. It does not contain the vacuum. It was not, when this inventor first put his invention to work before the public, an expansive engine, nor did it ever contain a very limited extent. It does not combine high and low-pressure steam in the same engine. It did not get the horse-power with 1 lb. of coal per hour, but required 16 lbs. of coal per horse-power per hour. It does not render the steam-engine universally applicable, by enabling it to work with a fresh supply of water of only 1 gallon per horse-power per day; but it requires 100 gallons for the like power and time; or, as stated by WATT in paragraph 53, 160 gallons. It does not render water-tube boilers practical, as it entails deposits. It did not present the means of removing from the steam-engine the two great obstacles to the full development of the high-pressure expansive and condensing steam-engine—surface condensation, and the employment of the water-tube boiler. It did not generate $13\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of steam for 1 lb. of coal, but only 8 lbs. of steam for 1 lb. of coal. It did not present mankind with a safe boiler, as in England and in America thousands of lives have been sacrificed by its explosions. It did not render the steam-engine capable of producing such great power with so little bulk and weight. It did not enable it to carry itself and the elements of its power from place to place, and be applicable in all localities; though this and the preceding point are its chief recommendations, contrasted with the WATT and the Cornish engines. It did not recognise the condensing effects due to the steam itself in the expansive engine. As an expanding engine, we see in paragraph 62 what Mr. WOODS, the then best judge upon that point, said of it in 1844. Now, after this examination, what presents itself to any mind informed upon the subject, and free to be guided by the evidence of practice, and enlightened by positive science upon the question? Why, that the high-pressure expansive and condensing steam-engine upon the inventor's basis draws with it all that is good in all the other bases; this inventor's basis having removed every barrier, and brought to light all the heretofore hidden causes of failure, presents a basis founded upon the rock of practice; and by his discovery of the cause of failure in the expansive engine, it is seen the failures have arisen from our not clearly understanding the subject, and not from any real inherent flashing of sound science and practice. The consequence will be that the expansive engine upon this basis will unite all the others into itself. A very different conclusion to that of the *Artizan* of 1844, and “the cause, the truth, and grandeur of which” was present with the writer in the *Engineer* in 1861, is clearly destined to lead to such results, in spite of all human opposition. Why should the position of the few indefinitely defer the time the nation shall gain from 20 to 30 million pounds sterling annually, and scourge the inventor to death for making such a basis, and practically proving it for 20 years?

In paragraph 131 the author shows from FAREY's work, page 331, that WATT could not gain more than 100 per cent. upon NEWCOMEN'S engine by his separate condenser, but before he (CRADDOCK) left his invention, in 1858, he had gained nearly 700 per cent. upon WATT's engine as he found it in 1840, or even in 1844, and double this amount upon the then non-condensing engines with the 16 lbs. of coal per horse-power per hour, as such engines can now be made condensing, and the coal reduced from 16 lbs. to 1 lb. per horse-power per hour.

Our space will allow us to add to our extracts only paragraph 133, but by a little attention to it all readers can see what a destructive cause was at work in the double, short, and quick-stroked expansive engine:—“Thereunder whose mind has been otherwise engaged than in the study of the steam-engine, in reflecting upon the hot and cold-blast set up within the steam cylinder of every such expansive steam-engine, should first recognise that the greater the degree of expansion which takes place in any one cylinder the greater becomes the cause of loss referred to, unless the cause be neutralised. To make the subject easy of comprehension to the general reader, suppose the steam-cylinder heated to 100° above the temperature of the steam in the boiler: the steam then is a cold-blast at all parts of the stroke, and the cylinder is soon reduced the 100° . Now, the steam from the boiler begins to be hotter than the cylinder, such steam being what is called saturated steam, on the cylinder extracting heat from it on entering at full pressure from the boiler condenser, we will suppose, one grain by weight, the heat being in the metal, and the water on it. When the communication with the boiler is closed the steam in the cylinder rapidly expands, and as rapidly cools; thus we have a cold-blast of great density at first, and becoming more cold as the steam becomes less dense; thus the metal becomes hotter than the steam, and that which was condensed, on entering, does at different parts of the stroke take its heat again, and leaves the cylinder as cold as if it had never thus imparted heat to it. And when the communication is opened to the condenser all the steam that came from the boiler, and with it all the heat, passes to the condenser, thus leaving the metal of the cylinder colder at the end of the second stroke than

“To render the case simple, suppose the exhaust and pressure strokes

as one stroke, as it is so understood by engineers, when referring to the revolution of the crank: now, the crank makes 1000 revolutions, during which time the cause of cooling is multiplied 1000 times. But it will be said how can that be, when the steam re-heats it every time by a fresh charge received from the boiler up to the boiler temperature, at least in that portion of the cylinder and piston exposed to it before cut off from the boiler. We will grant this, but mark how it re-heats it. Why, by depositing as much water as it gives up heat to the metal, the heat and water being equivalents of each other, form steam again at each stroke, and fly to the condenser at each stroke. Now, the constant cause of cooling is cumulative at each stroke; but the cylinder is at the end of each stroke as if it received no heat from the entering steam, which was temporarily condensed on entering, because it sends all such heat and water to the condenser. This cumulation goes on until we get a cylinder loaded with water, and a condenser choked with steam, that does little or no work in the expansive steam-engine, and the expansive engine becomes a loss rather than a gain; such it is often found to be, even at this day. The obvious result of the Cornish slow-stroked engine, and the increase of cylinders, in getting some power back on the impelling stroke, and filling up the tail of the indicator figure, are points for the engineer, but as they are treated of in other paragraphs, we omit them in this popular view of the question, which is intended to make it clear to all readers that such must be the result, even upon the supposition that no cold is imported into the question but that which is generated by the steam in the act of expansion in the steam cylinder; and upon the supposition, also, that every degree of heat that leaves the boiler in the steam is found in the condensing water. Of course some heat is lost by radiation and contact with other bodies besides the cold steam, but the question is here confined to the cold steam, and the action of the metal of the cylinder, to show that in it we have a cumulative cause of cold which, in such expansive engines as under notice, is more destructive of power than was NEWCOMEN's injecting of cold water into the steam-cylinder of the ordinary engines. As WATT's separate condenser was the chief wealth-making part of his invention, so the discovery of this cause, and its neutralisation, is a chief cause of the value of this invention, and it holds the same place in relation to the expansive engine as did WATT's separate condenser to NEWCOMEN's engine. Given a good farm, and a thousand ways present themselves for erecting the house, buildings, and making roads and accessories. If possible, the mechanical dress of the steam-engine admits of more easily modifying it, than in the case relating to the farm. Therefore, to be consistent, he who alters the accessories has quite as much right to claim the farm as he who does the same thing with another man's invention has to claim such invention. And be it remembered that such inventions cost more to produce and practically establish their soundness than very good farms can be purchased for, even in England.”

From 1844* we have consistently held this invention to be a sound one, and one of those which mark an era in the department to which they relate. We have no reason to change that opinion, and the manuscript pamphlet from which we have made these extracts presents very much to strengthen it. It forms an appropriate appendix to the inventor's Lectures, published by Simpkin, Marshall, and Co., in 1847. The republication of those Lectures with this appendix would form a practical and useful work on the steam-engine, and that upon a branch of it which has not been very much investigated, except by this author.

THE GREAT IRONMASTER.

“Delivered from persecution of malice and envy, here rests JOHN WILKINSON, Ironmaster, in certain hope of a better state and heavenly mansion, as promulgated by JESUS CHRIST, in whose Gospel he was a firm believer. His life was spent in action for the benefit of man, and he trusts, in some degree, to the glory of God.”

This, written with his own hand, we have authority for stating was the inscription which JOHN WILKINSON desired should be placed upon the iron mausoleum that was to surmount his iron coffin in which, by will, he ordered that his corpse should find a resting place, in a favourite spot in the beautiful garden which he had literally chiselled out of a rock when he built himself a home at Castle Head. Who of the great ironmasters that yet survive is there that would not desire to be able truthfully so to sketch their own history? We would willingly believe that there are many of the great ironmasters' successors who could do this; and that there is no one amongst our readers who will not have perused with very great pleasure the highly interesting letter which we published on May 18 from Mr. JAMES STOCKDALE, of Newton-in-Cartmel, a gentleman whose connection with Mr. JOHN WILKINSON consists in Mr. WILLIAM WILKINSON (JOHN's brother) having married his (Mr. STOCKDALE's) aunt, on his father's side. Reasonably, Mr. STOCKDALE cherishes every fact in the history of JOHN WILKINSON, and preserves with care every document that has been handed down to him that in any way may illustrate JOHN WILKINSON's life. Nor does he keep those documents, or the knowledge that he possesses, to himself. Reading the *Mining Journal* of the 13th of April last, he saw our notice of the presentation to the Corporation of Wolverhampton of the portrait of WILKINSON, who in that part of the kingdom is spoken of by many as “the founder of the South Staffordshire iron trade;” and, desiring that the Corporation should have full information of the history of the original, he at once wrote them the communication which we gave on May 18. Nor does Mr. STOCKDALE content himself with merely wishing to communicate to the Corporation what he knows relative to the subject of the letter, but, desiring that the whole iron trade should be made more than heretofore familiar with one who was so memorable an instance of the remarkable powers which, developed in their order, have done so much to lay broad the foundations of England's modern greatness, he writes in his postscript—“Perhaps the Editor of the *Mining Journal* will publish this letter.” Certainly he will; and he does so with much satisfaction that the *Mining Journal* should have led Mr. STOCKDALE to give to the world a very welcome addition to all that we have hitherto learnt through the pains-taking efforts of Mr. SAMUEL SMILES.

How very encouraging to every young man who, possessed of health and genius, is now striving to establish himself in any of the thousand and one departments into which the manipulation of the useful metals is divided: the history of JOHN WILKINSON. We commend it to them. Can any picture be more interesting to such men than of the three WILKINSONS making common flat-irons from the molten metal of the blast-furnace, “carried in large lades across the public highway to an adjoining shed, and poured into small moulds!” Then, to watch the father and sons, “of a bold, daring, and inventive turn,” alternating the work of their rude foundry with the cutting away of portions of large clay-stone rocks at the rear of their house and foundry, to grow wall-fruit upon the smoothed face of the rocks. Subsequently, to see them endeavouring to utilise the rich hematite ores of Furness with the fuel with which Nature surrounded them. How greatly the Furness district of the present day is indebted to these three iron-smelting pioneers it is not easy to compute. And we can imagine how, improving upon the manufacture of their common flat-iron, they found the means of prosecuting further experiments, by the success which attended JOHN WILKINSON's happy idea of producing box-iron, that enabled the frilled dandies of that day to be more than ever charmed with the skill of their laundresses.

Without pausing to point to the difference in the worth to mankind of the inventors of the box-iron and the fops who “dislike trade,” we gather satisfaction from finding ISAAC WILKINSON (“then rather old”), as Mr. STOCKDALE writes with almost the quaintness of PEPYS, with his “clever son,” JOHN WILKINSON, erecting iron-works in Staffordshire. The date of the erection of WILKINSON's blast-furnace at Bradley is said to have been 1766 or 1767. It was the first put up in the township of Bilston. Exclusively flat-iron and box-iron makers no more, they are soon the owners of blast-furnaces and iron-works in most parts of England and Wales which were known at that time to possess the materials for the smelting of the metal. The sire dead, JOHN becomes known as the “Great Ironmaster.” And well he deserved the name. After four years' efforts he succeeded in

* “Indeed, the principle has given a new character to the steam-engine, and one which, at a future time, may be applied to uses which the inventor never contemplated.”—*Mining Journal*, June 13, 1844, page 201.

smelting iron with coal, whereby he made his Bradley furnace produce not 10 but 20 tons a week. He communicates the fact in a letter dated Oct. 11, 1772. He says, “The coal is got on my estate, and answers well.” Not content with attending to and improving the production of iron—and the evidence given at the trial upon NEILSON's patent, in 1839, was conclusive that he invented a kind of hot-blast—JOHN WILKINSON comes to the aid of WATT, who requires a cylinder bored with greater precision than it was possible to turn out with the boring machinery previously used.

At this period (early in 1775) of his history JOHN WILKINSON had amongst his other works an iron foundry at Bersham, near Chester, and had invented a new cylinder-boring machine, the merits of which far exceeded all similar appliances. Thenceforward he is resorted to by WATT for bored cast-iron cylinders and for condensers; and he is found in converse with WATT at his works. The invention and perseverance of each is used to the benefit of the other. In less than 18 months after WATT applies to WILKINSON for a cylinder bored to truth, WILKINSON commencing the manufacture of wrought-iron—or as WATT, in writing to BOULTON, describes it, “is going to work in the forge way”—and not content with the old appliances, sends to WATT for a tilt-hammer. WATT describes it as “an engine to raise a stamp of 15 cwt. thirty or forty times in a minute;” and he adds, “Many of these battering-rams will be wanted, if they answer.” The hammer was a success, and water-power is obsolete. Soon WATT is making engines for WILKINSON's forge at Bradley, capable of working four hammers of 7 cwt. each.

But WILKINSON, not content with making iron in England and Wales, now establishes ironworks in France, and there does that which had never before been done in that country: he casts cannon in the solid, and then bores them. For this information we are indebted, through Mr. SMILES, to Mr. ARTHUR YOUNG, who records the circumstance in his “Travels in France” (4th edition, London, 1792, p. 90), and speaks of the process being unknown in France “until that well-known English manufacturer (JOHN WILKINSON) arrived.” WILKINSON was in France in 1785. At Crusal, there, he erected one of WATT's steam-engines, the first that was brought into use in that country. In a letter to WATT, dated from Crusal, Sept. 13, 1785, he says—“The engine is in operation, and the Frenchmen are delighted. It is a complete success, and the numerous visitors, among whom were Due d'ANGOULEME, M. BERTRAND, &c., expressed their satisfaction. I wish you had been here.” The Parisians were also indebted to him for the iron pipes for their water-works, for the supply of which he contracted. So highly were the Parisians satisfied with the pipes that a grand banquet was devised in WILKINSON's honour, and it came off at the Hotel de Ville, on Jan. 14, 1786. WILKINSON returned to England in July of that year.

At about the time that he started his forge at Bradley (1784) he is found assisting the third ABRAHAM DARBY to construct the first iron bridge. Not only does he subscribe towards the undertaking, and otherwise become an active promoter of the scheme, but he also gave the company that was formed for building it the benefit of his skill and experience so soon as it was determined that the bridge should be of iron. SMILES admits that in his “Lives of the Engineers” he has attributed rather more credit to WILKINSON than he is entitled to. There is, however, one invention closely allied with iron bridges, and which has resulted in far more benefit than has been produced by them, alike to the iron trade and to the world, which belongs as exclusively to JOHN WILKINSON as does the invention of box smoothing irons. How far the idea of building boats and barges of iron was suggested to him by the part which he took in spanning the Severn at Broseley with a cast-iron bridge it is impossible to determine, but it is an interesting coincidence that in eight years after the bridge was opened to the public WILKINSON wrote from Broseley, stating that his iron boat had been launched, that it “answered all his expectations, and had convinced the unbelievers, who were 992 in 1800. It would (he added) be a nine days' wonder, and then be like Columbus's egg.” Fifteen months afterwards, writing from his Bradley Ironworks, he stated that there had been two iron vessels launched in his service within the previous two months, one a canal boat, and the other a 40-ton barge for the river Severn; and he expected that the latter was then at Stourport, laden with bar-iron. “My clerk at Broseley (he says) advises me that she swims remarkably light; and exceeds even my own expectations.” What the world owes to this invention alone no one can estimate. Truly JOHN WILKINSON was the “Great Ironmaster,” and might well issue coins bearing his own likeness on the obverse, and on the reverse a representation of a forge, a steam-hammer, and an iron ship.

No wonder that after all his successes in the production and manipulation of iron he should have desired that his coffin should be made of that material; and that of that material his mural monument should be constructed. But, to translate the Latin passage with which Mr. STOCKDALE concludes his letter—“Thus passes away the glory of this world.” JOHN WILKINSON was “of the earth earthly.” And as his life's sun approached its going down, he, following the precedent set by men who had lived before him, seems to have wished to keep this momentous truth constantly in his mind. So, whilst enjoying his retreat at Lindale, and recalling in the rock-gardens he had made for himself at Castle Head the early associations connected with similar victories by father and sons in the slate-stone rocks near to the foundry in which they wrought together in casting flat-irons, JOHN WILKINSON would remind the “Great Ironmaster,” by the presence of his own coffin, that as the father had died, so too the son must die. With like emotions, also, he would view the construction of the pyramidal iron mausoleum, of “20 tons weight,” which was to be placed over the iron coffin when the designer of both should be enclosed within it. And we can imagine that if he had thought he should be “four times buried and three times disinterred,” the persistent spirit which in the heyday of life had enabled him to surmount every obstacle that impeded the completion of his plans would have prompted him to take those steps that would have secured the execution of his wishes at the close of his life. He would have made the rocks provide him the grave he desired, even as he had twice forced them to yield him a garden.

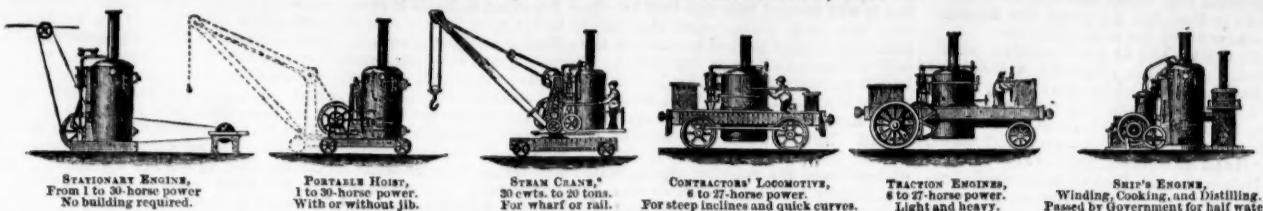
Under the pew of Castle Head House, in the Lindale Chapel, the “Great Ironmaster” has at last found a resting place; and who will not join with us in trusting that, through that Gospel in which he was a “firm believer,” he is now in blissful possession of the “better state and heavenly mansion” to which he looked forward?

ABSORPTION OF GASES BY METALS.—Prof. ODLING, in a lecture on this subject, stated that platinum, in the form of wire or plate, at a low red heat, can take up and hold hydrogen gas; but palladium possesses this power in a very high degree and at a lower temperature, neither having the slightest absorbent power for oxygen or nitrogen. This power has been found to vary with the condition of the surface of the metals and the temperature. The pressure required to condense the quantity of gas extracted from these metals in some cases was calculated as equal to 15,000 atmospheres. Some of the hydrogen was extracted by means of Sprengel's air-pump, and proved to possess its ordinary chemical characters. Copper and gold when heated also absorb and retain hydrogen; but silver especially selects oxygen. Iron at a red heat can absorb both hydrogen and carbonic oxide, which facts were shown to have an important bearing on the conversion of iron into steel. In relation to this subject, Prof. ODLING actually extracted hydrogen from a piece of the Lenarto meteorite iron. In the presence of his audience. After offering to the analysis of this iron as 85·68 hydrogen, 4·46 carbonic oxide, and 9·94 nitrogen, and to that of ordinary iron as 58 carbonic oxides, 21 hydrogen, and 11 nitrogen, he added that, as hydrogen has been recognised in the spectrum analysis of the light of the fixed stars by Huggins and Miller, and in a number of classes of which Alpha Lyra is the type, the iron of Lenarto had, no doubt, come from an atmosphere in which hydrogen gas greatly prevailed. We may, therefore, say, he looks upon this meteorite as holding imprisoned within it and bearing to us the hydrogen of the stars. It has been found difficult to impregnate malleable iron with more than half its volume of hydrogen gas under the pressure of our atmosphere. Now, the meteorite iron gives off, without being fully exhausted, about six times that amount. The inference, therefore, is that the meteorite has been extruded from a dense atmosphere of hydrogen, for which we must look beyond the light cometary matter floating within the limits of the solar system. In regard to the nature of the phenomena connected with the absorption and occlusion of gases by metals, Prof. ODLING referred to and illustrated the general proposition of FARADAY, in 1823, that a gas is nothing else than the vapour of a volatile liquid at a temperature considerably above the boiling point of the liquid; and after showing by experiments the absorbent powers of colloid substances (such as white of egg) for gases, he expressed his opinion that metals also possess a certain degree of porosity, and thus resemble colloid substances, being more accessible to liquids than gases, which latter undergo the process of liquefaction previous to absorption. Hence a peculiar dialytic action also resides in metallic septa. Prof. ODLING concluded with remarks on the importance and extensive influence of these researches both on the abstract sciences and on the arts of life.

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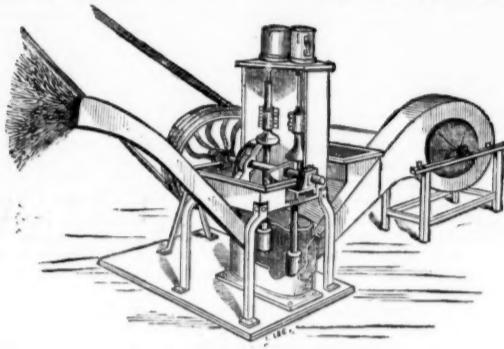


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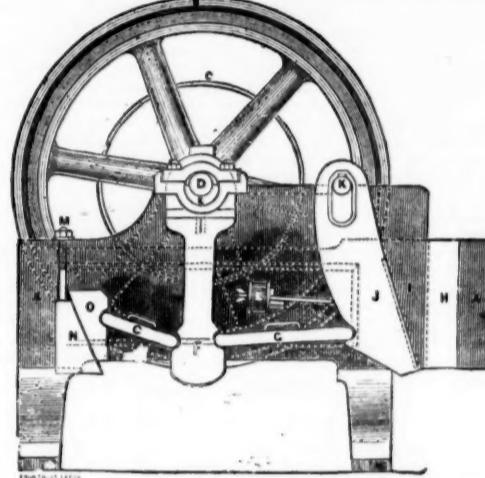
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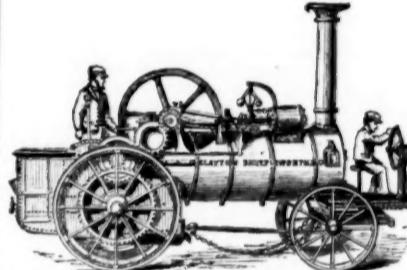
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